

The JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

EDUCATION AND SOCIAL WORK

M. C. ELMER, *Editor*

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THE JOURNAL OF EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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The JOURNAL of EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

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EDITORIAL

The continuous modifications that occur in society and demand new methods of procedure and changes in social organization are quite generally recognized. The advantage of today becomes the handicap of tomorrow, although the reorganization is usually met by strong resistance. This need for a change in methods is well illustrated by what has occurred in our efforts to meet the needs for social adjustment. It is but yesterday that the general social reaction to the needs of individuals in distress was charity, a sort of hand-to-mouth relief which served as an outlet for sympathy, but led to the pauperization of the recipient. When some of the causes of maladjustment and social distress came to be understood, the need for a change in methods was likewise recognized. Intelligent direction and aid came to be substituted for pity and charity.

This change of attitude brought about the need for educated persons who understood the principles underlying human relationships and well trained in the techniques and methods for meeting particular kinds of social maladjustment. The advances made in medicine, in psychiatry, in the fields of psychology, economics, biology, and sociology require that the equipment for doing social work today is as far removed from the requirements of a few years ago as charity relief is from intelligent guidance.

Growing out of the new situations into which social workers were hurled from 1916 to 1920, the need for planned adjust-

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ment of social disorganization was more and more clearly recognized. The efforts to train people who dealt with social situations covered the range from suggested college courses on the "human side of engineering" to the development of schools of social work which had built up a curriculum containing the results of the best scientific research and practical experience.

However, as recently as 1933 an article appeared in a leading educational magazine, which was based on the point of view that social work was not a profession, that graduate training for social work was superfluous, and that social work was largely routine which required no specialized technical or professional training other than that obtained by an undergraduate major in social science. While the point of view and its substantiating data were presented in a creditable manner, the attitude expressed carried me back about thirty-five years when I heard a carpenter exclaim, "Do you mean to say that Henry is going to the University of Wisconsin to learn to be a farmer? Shucks, any one willing to work can farm." And a few years later, when a young man suggested going to a teachers' training school, a member of a school board stated, "What do you mean? Go to school to learn to be a teacher? Tell the children what to study and make them behave." Attitudes not so different from the above found expression during the last few years when the depression gave rise to a demand for persons to help with the almost unparalleled relief situation. A more complete understanding of society, however, has become a part of our cultural background and the ultimate result is certain to be more adequate education and better training in the technical aspects of social work.

M. C. ELMER

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK IN THE NEW ORDER

ARLIEN JOHNSON

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The terminology current in our conversations and literature of "a changing world" seems recently to have given way to "a new order." Does this reflect, perhaps, a step toward acceptance of fundamental changes in our economic and social relationships? The use of the term at least should challenge seriously our thinking about concepts basic to social work and education for social work.

The birth pangs of a new order are peculiarly painful today because of defective coördination among the parts of our body politic. Our economic, governmental, and moral ideas and ideals are out of alignment with one another and within themselves. Or, as a social scientist has put it, "There is in our social organizations an institutional inertia, and in our social philosophies a tradition of rigidity,"¹ which makes the rapidly changing world today a world of conflicts and contradictions.

Under these circumstances, he is indeed presumptuous who undertakes the role of a prophet. But he is also deaf, dumb, and blind who fails to see emerging certain significant trends which, if harnessed and driven with a firm hand, might lead indeed to a new order. A few trends which seem significant and pertinent as a background for any discussion of the future of professional education for social work will be briefly mentioned.

First, the replacement of the individualistic tradition by a collectivist economy has been emerging for many years and is at last beginning to be discerned and recognized.² A recent report issued by the American Historical Association states:

¹ "A Review of Findings," *Recent Social Trends*, President's Research Committee on Social Trends (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1933), p. xxviii.

² George S. Counts, "The Social Foundations of Education," American Historical Association, Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part IX, p. 527.

The practical man has no choice but to make his peace with the great trend toward an interdependent society. To attempt to restore the economy of a century ago or to erect an individualistic superstructure on socialized foundations would be utterly Utopian. To move in this direction would be to court disaster. The hands of the clock of cultural evolution cannot be turned back. Already men have been irrevocably changed by the new forces.

The sharpness of the conflict can be expected to increase until some balance is achieved which will restore a degree of well-being to the mass of the population. To social workers who know so poignantly the barrenness of life for those living at the subsistence level and the damage done by the scourge of unemployment, this struggle should be one into which they would enter with willingness and determination. The form such participation should take, however, is less clear than the necessity for it, and should be a problem of concern for professional education.

A second and related significant trend today is the expanding sphere of government, almost a commonplace to mention, but fraught for social workers with extraordinary implications. Within three years the principle of "local responsibility," firmly imbedded in the policy of the Federal Government with respect to aid to the disadvantaged, has given way to what promises to be a permanent principle of grants-in-aid to State governments, for various groups. Acceptance of responsibility by the Federal Government has, in turn, forced such acceptance upon the States with the result that there is a possibility of a development of Federal-State-local responsibility for public-welfare services which will eventually provide a comprehensive, universal program and may even lead to preventive measures. Will this result ultimately, perhaps, in a departure from the "individual" approach to poverty and bring us to more positive efforts to deal with groups on the basis of causes producing poverty? The mere possibility should be examined for its bearing upon education for social work.

The third element in our life today which will be mentioned is the interest in fact finding and the importance of applying existing knowledge to practice. Social data already collected relating to effects of modern life upon the family, upon child welfare, upon crime—to mention a few of the subjects of nationwide surveys in recent years—supply material for the social worker to assimilate and apply to the end that methods may be modified accordingly. Human relationships, the medium in which the social worker deals, are never static. Constant inquiry, interpretation, and synthesis of data are necessary if our methods are to keep pace with the problems. Obviously, this is of primary importance to the advancement of professional education.

If we accept these trends—collectivism of some sort, expanding public-welfare services, and wealth of research materials—then, as points of the compass by which to chart our discussion, what guidance do they offer for social work? The depression which has hastened the action of these trends has thrown upon social work burdens too great to bear. The formative stage of our profession is revealed—its weaknesses in philosophy, methodology, the lack of agreement among its leaders as to how we are to proceed from here. But, withal, the strength of the golden thread that holds us together is also exposed. Social work has grown out of the rich soil of concern about the well-being of the great mass of ordinary working men and women. If today we differ in our ideas as to what constitutes “well-being” and how it is to be attained, nevertheless we do have in common a deep concern about the remedying of social injustice. It is well, then, to appraise our progress and to apply our intelligence as best we can.

Before discussing the future of professional education in the light of current trends, let us turn for a moment to an examination of the present status of formal education in preparation for social work. Schools of social work have spread rapidly since the

war, with one and one-half times as many schools established in the ten years 1917-1927 as there had been in the entire preceding eighteen years.³ The setting of standards of education among the schools is also more recent, dating from the organization of the American Association of Schools of Social Work in 1919. At present there seems to be agreement upon the desirability of the following fundamentals: (1) preprofessional education around a nucleus of courses in the social and biological sciences; (2) professional education on a graduate basis; (3) an integrated course of graduate study covering the basic principles of social work and including experience in the field under purposive supervision; (4) study of the basic content of courses included in the curriculum of all the member schools. Among the evidences of progress toward these requirements are the growing number of schools unequivocally on a graduate basis and the recent reports of committees of the Association, making recommendations concerning the content of curricula.

Professional education for social work, then, which was only beginning before the onset of the depression to discover some of its "basic unities," has been stimulated and at the same time tested by the cataclysm of the past five years. Progress has been made toward agreement upon certain minimum essentials for education for the profession. I am being so bold as to suggest certain other objectives and points of emphasis which should engage our attention in view of current economic, governmental, and social trends.

First let us inquire what the economic trend toward collectivism means for us. The old individualistic philosophy is not dead yet. It has undoubtedly influenced our approach to human relationships and possibly accounts for the overemphasis social work

³ Between 1898 and 1916 there were organized 4 independent schools, 9 departments or schools in colleges or universities, and 2 courses in colleges and universities. From 1917 to 1927, 6 independent schools were organized, 17 departments or schools in colleges and universities, and 3 courses. Compiled from study made by Laura Spelman Rockefeller Foundation, 1926 (mimeographed).

has given to case work, which has been regarded by some as the essence of the whole field.⁴ But the past few years have demonstrated unmistakably the limitations of the individual approach to our social problems. The case worker in the face of unemployment is overwhelmed with a sense of the futility of attempting to maintain morale in families where only employment is needed to return them to normal living. Even under so-called normal times, we cannot indefinitely "adjust" people to conditions that should not exist. The situation becomes intolerable and our efforts unworthy unless we apply our energies at the same time to help remove the conditions.

This is not a criticism of the case-work method itself which in its various applications to human problems and relationships constitutes one of our most useful tools of social treatment. Rather, we have expected the impossible from this field alone without considering it in relation to the other fields of social work and to the economic and political changes going on in society. We are now entering an era when government services will be extended. Do not let us make the mistake of overemphasizing public administration, as we have overemphasized case work. My plea is that we do not keep our professional education in categories. A few years ago we discovered "generic case work." Are we not ready now to discover "generic social work?" Unification of the curriculum seems to me more important at the moment than specialization. Let me illustrate. A few years ago, one of the most able students from the University of Washington went for graduate work to an eastern school of social work. Last year social workers were delighted to hear that she had completed her work and wished to return to Seattle. Several positions were open. To our dismay we found she was unprepared to fill any position except in one highly specialized field of case work in

⁴Edward C. Lindeman, "Basic Unities in Social Work," *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work* (Kansas City), 1934, p. 507.

which she had "majored." The last catalogue of this school states that since all branches of social work cannot be taught with equal success and since the demand is greatest for case workers, the school aims to give specialized training in case work only. From my experience in selecting personnel for the Washington Emergency Relief Administration in the early stages of its organization, I question whether specialization in case work prepares one for the demands of the day. County organization particularly requires knowledge of public-welfare administration, of community organization, of as much of specialized treatment resources as one can know. The injustices of the old poor law with its repressive attitudes, its insistence upon dissociated local responsibility become real to those who work in rural communities; and the removal of poor-law attitudes and structures is possible only when social workers understand their implications and have the skill to demonstrate modern methods of treatment and to develop substitutes for antiquated machinery.

The importance of integrating our procedures in social work is, of course, already recognized, at least on paper, by the member schools of the Association. But what of the extension of instruction in directions not heretofore generally recognized as essential to the professional preparation of social workers? The very foundations of the present economic order are under fire. Changes are inevitable. Should schools of social work wait for new forms of service to develop in their communities before they include them in the curriculum, or should they be in advance of their communities in preparing leaders to initiate new forms of service? I am thinking of the long overdue programs of social insurance that are making an appearance in the United States. If these measures are to succeed—and if our profession is to advance with the times—we cannot afford to omit from the curriculum study of administration of social insurances in this country and abroad. What part will social workers play in the direc-

tion of the nation-wide system of employment exchanges which promise to be established in the next decade? Surely here are fields to explore and to which to relate application of social case work and other procedures peculiar to social work.

What I have been trying to say amounts to this: Professional education for social work should be responsive to the trends of the day. If one of those trends is toward an "interdependent society," how plainly necessary does it become for us to realize the interdependence of the various fields of social work and social endeavor. We cannot alone bring about the new order of coöperation, but we can hasten its progress by providing skills through which the steps toward it can be firmly built. But let us make use of all that we have learned and not be carried away in specialized innovations.

The second trend mentioned earlier in the discussion, the expanding function of government, likewise opens new vistas in professional education for social work. The recently published report of the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel includes social work among the professions mentioned in the classification, "professional work," one of five "clearly distinguishable kinds of service" within the province of government.⁵ The Commission recommends the establishment of "career service" under which young persons would enter government service with the intention of continuing under laws, rules, and procedures which would ensure advancement. For the professional group, the Commission specifically recommends: "Certification by accredited professional associations and by legally established professional bodies should be made a prerequisite for all professional and technical positions to which this procedure is applicable."⁶ Here is a challenge and an opportunity.

For many years there have been able persons in public social

⁵ "Better Government Personnel," p. 26.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 6-7.

services under municipal, State, and Federal governments. The increasing participation of States and most recently of the Federal Government in comprehensive programs of public-welfare services makes necessary more than ever such a merit system as that recommended by the Commission of Inquiry on Public Service Personnel. In 1923, speaking before the National Conference of Social Work, Miss Julia Lathrop propounded two basic questions to be answered in the next fifty years: one, could we create a public service "of such practical opportunity and such great ideals that our ablest youth might look toward it as a career," and the second question, could we abolish poverty in the next fifty years?⁷ The answer to both of these questions after twelve years is disappointing indeed. But the statement made by Miss Lathrop is as true today as twelve years ago that "A vigorous forward movement is urgent to strengthen the merit system throughout this country. . . . The change should not require fifty years, or twenty-five—why not say ten? We have schools, we have young men and women eager for the opportunity public service should offer. We need only to stir the public imagination and our own."⁸ I wonder if the schools of social work, except for a few notable exceptions, have not been very passive about the importance of the merit system and the public service as a career for their graduates. Again let me emphasize the importance of an integrated curriculum. Well-rounded preparation for public social-service positions is imperative. I find that students do have their imaginations stirred when they see the possibilities for leadership in public welfare. As one young woman in our graduate division of social work confessed the other day, "I begin to see the relation between things. When I first came I'm afraid it was pretty much 'me and my client.' "

⁷ Julia Lathrop, "Transition from Charities and Corrections to Social Work, 1873-1923, and Then?" *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1923, p. 200.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 201.

One other point I should like to make with respect to education as it relates to public social services and that is the effect of great numbers of persons without professional preparation being drawn into the unemployment relief administrations. The demands from these agencies during the depression period seems to me to have confused our thinking at times concerning the place of professional education in schools of social work in the present crisis and in the future. In planning for the future should we not distinguish between the long-time requirements and the temporary demands? A certain number of persons in the unemployment relief administrations are from other professions, some of whom will find such satisfactions in social work that they will wish to remain indefinitely. They should be encouraged as they can be assimilated into permanent organizations, such as the so-called emergency subsidies. (We cannot believe that twenty million people will continue to be cared for by direct relief.)

The Federal Emergency Relief Administration has recognized the desirability of this eventuality by granting fellowships to a limited number of employees for a period of study in schools of social work. This would seem sound policy that might be extended at least during the demands of the present period. But there are also a number of people in unemployment relief work who will return to other occupations when the opportunity arises. Some of the least well qualified will doubtless wish to continue in social work and will present a problem from the professional point of view in the future. To attempt to provide the same kind of professional education for all these groups is like shooting in all directions at once without a target in sight.

An inquiry of one hundred home visitors in the unemployment relief organization in Seattle brought the following results: They are a *comparatively young group*, about one half being under 30 years of age and only 12 persons being over 40 years of age. In other words, about 85 per cent are under 40

years of age. Their *education*, likewise, is promising. About one half are college graduates and another 30 per cent have had more than two years (but less than four) of college work. Their *previous occupations*, however, show only one quarter to have been in other professions such as teaching, engineering, library work, nursing, etc. If we add business and professional experience together, we find one third to have had experience in one or the other. The remainder were housewives, clerical workers, students, or without any previous occupation. Their expectation for future occupation shows one half definitely not wishing to leave social work.

We have found great eagerness on the part of all of these workers for professional courses. Naturally, they wish to improve their status and to feel that they are making advancement. Is it not the place of schools of social work to clarify the problem by analyzing the needs of numbers of more or less temporary workers and of those persons who will be drawn into the profession permanently? For the latter, full-time or part-time fellowships in a school of social work where they may secure complete preparation even over a period of time would do much to raise the level of performance and give much needed leadership to public service. For the group which will return to other occupations and professions as opportunities occur, "first-aid" courses, and professional courses distinct from the regular curriculum of the schools, would seem advisable. The relief organizations might also classify and assign work in accordance with preparation. Unless we can distinguish between these two groups and provide for their educational needs on different levels, it seems to me we are in danger of losing some of the gains made in professional education without serving effectively to improve the quality of the public service.

When we turn to the trend toward research and its effects upon social work, we should find the schools leading the way.

The schools of social work should have the personnel qualified and also should have the leisure to help apply scientific knowledge already assembled to the existing knowledge, methods, and philosophies we call social work, so that there may be growth. Have we modified our services to families as a result of what we know about the changes that have been taking place in family life? The decreasing size of the family, the employment of women outside the home, the instability of the marriage relationship—have these resulted in new types of services to families? The fact that one third of the unemployed are unskilled workers and another quarter are semiskilled raises questions about vocational guidance as a part of services offered to families and in schools. The shortening of the working day is said to forecast leisure. Group work, recreation, and adult education should grow in importance, accordingly. Does this mean anything to social-work education? We have found eager response from the departments of physical education and the schools of education when collaboration in developing a new type of skill for persons entering community recreation was suggested.

At this point may I mention also the application of historical materials to social work. A few schools include in the curriculum the history of social experimentation. All should, it seems to me. The need for perspective was never greater than it is today. The history of social reform, philanthropy, and social work in the United States and particularly abroad inspire courage, confidence, and motivation.

Progress has definitely been made during the past ten years in the publication of research materials relating to social work. While social work has a content of its own as an applied science, I believe that our profession rests upon "pure" sciences, and that a knowledge of these—notably the social and biological sciences—will determine the rapidity with which we proceed to develop our own materials.

More specific definition of preprofessional education, therefore, is important to social-work education in the future. Considerable progress has been made by member schools of the Association in at least mentioning social and biological sciences as prerequisites. But Dr. Esther L. Brown's statement made in 1932 would seem still to hold true, that "As yet, there is no rigid emphasis upon training in the scientific field comparable to that of the premedical requirements."⁹ Six schools specify numbers of hours and name the sciences—usually sociology, economics, and psychology, with political science, biology, and history occurring in one or more combinations. Has the time come to define more exactly what aspects of the social and biological sciences have the greatest importance upon social-work education?

From the standpoint of case work, we have long been aware of the value of knowledge of the biological basis of human nature. The ignorance of the average liberal-arts graduate of elementary physiology is startling. To give "medical information" to such ill-prepared students complicates the problem of instruction. The psychological and sociological bases of human nature, likewise, are fundamental for those who are to deal with family relationships, social attitudes, and problems involved in group behavior.

The sciences of government and law would seem to be essential foundations for instruction in public-welfare administration. The structure and function of local and State governments as well as some knowledge of comparative government will clear the way for firmer grasp on the operation of government in the field of social services. This knowledge could well be secured during undergraduate study. The increasing importance of social legislation, of administrative bodies, of work with courts are reasons why certain aspects of law should be studied for their rela-

⁹ Esther Lucile Brown, "Social Work Against a Background of Other Professions," *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1932, p. 531.

tion to social work. History and economics during this period should develop understanding of labor's struggle to escape exploitation, and the forces and factors that produce some of the conflicts in society today. In other words, as public welfare begins to take the center of the social-work field, must we not prepare to give new emphasis to its importance for those entering social work?

The requirement of basic scientific knowledge, then, is more vital to social-work education than ever before, because of the necessity of social workers adapting their skills to new situations and needs during this period of disorganization and rapidity of change. The future is uncertain. Flexibility of methods is a mark of professional skill, and flexibility comes from breadth and depth of wisdom. If social workers are to be able to adapt their methods to new conditions, they must have a broad base from which to do creative, constructive experimentation.

The future lies before us as challenging as it has ever been in the centuries that lie behind us. Professional education in the new order must be responsive to the needs of the new order. By applying our intelligence to the masses of social data already collected we can perhaps help toward the creation of a new order, driven by the urge that holds us all together in spite of our differences.

NEWER TRENDS IN EDUCATION FOR FAMILY SOCIAL WORK

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Social work is demanding that its practitioners have a good educational preparation. In spite of the increase in the number employed in social-work jobs, and in spite of the wider and more complex forces which are influencing both its philosophy and its practice, the conviction is rapidly gaining ground that good will and respectable intelligence are not adequate equipment for the man or the woman who takes up the responsibility of adjusting persons to society, or of leadership in social planning for the society of tomorrow.

That is not to deny that there are serious challenges to such a program. The old sentimentalism—or, we might say, the cultural mores—dies hard. There is still plenty of faith in the competency of the kind heart, as there is also in rugged individualism. In addition to these handicaps to the realization of an efficient professionalism which come down from an ancient and honored past, there is, particularly in this country, the blatant menace of the political spoilsman who knows what he wants and how to get it. The proportions to which public social work has grown with a corresponding budget and number of public servants is a lodestone irresistibly drawing his attention to such rich possibilities for building up his political power. Nor would it be realistic to deny that both the cultural technics of mutual aid and the value of economic independence as well as the drive of political ambitions have not made inroads into a saner and a more honest administration of social work. The Federal Emergency Relief Administration, in spite of its sincere and able efforts to keep politics out of the administration of public relief, has only partly succeeded. No one even claims that the Works Progress Administration has been kept free; and what Congress did to the Presi-

dent's desire to have an efficient administration of the provisions of the Social Security Act is notorious.

But in spite of all these powerful forces tending to place social work in the hands of the unprepared or the political hack, the advance marked by the present Federal Administration is unprecedented. In one direction it only incidentally concerns us: It has made real progress in equalizing the availability of efficient services and resources for public social work throughout the country to an extent that would have seemed unattainable even so short a time ago as five years. More directly by the influence of the Federal directors of that Administration, local agencies have been encouraged to equip themselves with an educated personnel and the quality of the education has been defined. At the moment, it is immaterial that the standard laid down by the Federal office is that of the two professional organizations among social workers, the American Association of Social Workers and the Association of Schools. The significant thing is that there is a standard recognized by the central authority and that such money as is allocated to States is on the grant-in-aid principle. Such a standard will act as an insistent pressure upon local administrative units constantly urging them to improve the educational equipment of their personnel, even if there is no direct compulsion as in the nature of the case there cannot be.

Such a Federal standard also strongly encourages any local sentiment for better administration. Boards of private agencies more willingly release members of their staffs under such circumstances. One board expressed itself "The best service we can render the community and the nation, in this emergency, is to give our trained personnel to public welfare, so as to equip the new and greatly enlarged public service with the highest grade of leadership available." The more efficient public officials—of whom we have far more than is commonly understood, or, perhaps, than we deserve—also welcomed the chance to apply some

tests of efficiency to this new field, of which most of them knew nothing.

Perhaps another factor has influenced the personnel of social work in these last few years; unemployment itself has made available a large number of highly educated young men and women for the new positions which had somehow to be filled. Never before in this generation, at least, has it been possible to secure anything like such a number of first-class persons; persons to whom education meant something, both as a process and also in its relation to one's life work.

Under these various attractions social work has gathered a large personnel, eager to make good and well acquainted with the significance of professional status, together with a public opinion and a public policy which place a new value upon the educated social worker. Schools for social work have increased in number. Registration in all the schools has risen to an unprecedented degree. The curriculum of professional schools, from being an undefined group of courses, each school developing as its ideas and resources led, is coming into some uniformity; and the whole educational program is rapidly rising from an undergraduate to graduate status. It can, in reality, be said that education for social work has arrived.

As we attempt to interpret these new factors in education for social work, its earlier history will throw light upon our present problems and philosophy.

As Steiner pointed out, unlike other professions "education for social work never passed through the didactic stage of instruction with chief value upon theoretical studies."¹ It started out as a practice in human relations; and when its practitioners believed they had accumulated a body of method and knowledge that could be passed on to those coming into the field they imparted it

¹ Jesse F. Steiner, "Education for Social Work," *The American Journal of Sociology*, xxvi, 5, p. 607.

by the apprenticeship method. But both methods and knowledge are in the field of human relations and are the subject of psychology and of the social sciences which were simultaneously making extensive discoveries. So that in the last half of the nineteenth century and the first fifteen or twenty years of this century we have the curious situation of two considerable bodies of workers engaged in understanding and in dealing with the same material; but each pursuing its own object quite independently of the other, sometimes not knowing of the other's existence, sometimes quite indifferent to its work.

There were three events which polarized the scattered efforts of social workers to bring their accumulated knowledge and methods into some sort of orderly array. In 1915, Dr. Abraham Flexner, after a sympathetic comparison of social work with the criteria of a profession as he understood a profession, laid down the proposition that social work, while sharing many of the qualities of a profession, nevertheless could not be considered professional because it had no distinctive technic which lent itself to communication by an educational process.² Two years later, Miss Richmond's *Social Diagnosis*³ was published almost as an answer to that challenge, although Miss Richmond had been at work on it for nearly ten years. The only science which has affected social work directly, dynamic psychology, began to exert its influence during these same years, and greatly aided the profession in equipping itself with the sort of technic recommended by Dr. Flexner.

It is an interesting question as to whether social work would have developed as it has were it not for these three influences flowing together between 1915 and, say the Great War, during which social work was challenged pretty much as it is by unemployment today. Personally, I believe the influence of Dr. Flex-

² Abraham Flexner, "Is Social Work a Profession?" *Proceedings of the National Conferences of Charities and Correction*, Chicago, 1915.

³ Mary E. Richmond (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1917), 511 pages.

ner's pronouncement has skewed the evolution of education for social work as it has directed its attention to technic as the sole criterion of professional status—although Dr. Flexner cannot be accused of laying down any such principle. The influence of dynamic psychology with its categories and analysis of processes reinforced the drive for technics; so that by the beginning of this depression probably the professions of medicine and engineering alone placed greater emphasis upon technic, or had worked out more elaborate technics than social work.

This had some unfortunate results, as it led the schools to ignore other and equally important aspects of professional education; the sciences underlying the subject matter and technics, the long story of the efforts of man to face the same or similar problems in previous generations, and the philosophical evaluations of all the other approaches. Not a thing learned as method—or technic—is wasted or useless. No practitioner in any professional activity may honestly offer himself as equipped to serve his age who has not already mastered as much as may be learned. If he does, he may justly be accused of dishonesty and even of charlatanism. Especially in the field of social work, its subject material—the fate of human beings—is far too valuable to waste in experimentation in a method which has already been learned. Certainly we are at the beginnings only of the discovery and perfection of the methods of social work, and the schools will have to share with the practitioner the responsibility for exploration and development in this field as well as to teach what is known to those preparing themselves for social work. The trouble is not that technic has been given attention; rather is it in the unilateral dependence upon one phase of professional education, and the consequent exclusion of the scientific, historical, and philosophical disciplines which are quite as essential to professional education as mastery of method. Exclusive attention to the scientific, historical, and philosophical subjects turns out a theorist, and usu-

ally a theorist who has not given reality—which sometimes means sense—to these theories by testing them out against the hard facts of human relations. The literature of education for social work is filled with the fears that educational projects tied up with universities might turn out mere theorists. In his bequest to the New York C.O.S. Mr. Kenneday said he had considered “the possible desirability of establishing the school as a department of some university, but (had) decided it should preferably be connected with the practical charity work of the city. . . .”⁴ The same fear led most of the early projects in education for social work, even before the need for creating a new technic was fully appreciated, to be set up as independent schools—Chicago, Philadelphia, and St. Louis as well as New York. It may not be without significance that the early projects in education for social work which started out as curricula within universities have all died—Harvard, Columbia, Johns Hopkins, and others. The fate of these two sorts of educational ventures seems pretty conclusive evidence of the great importance of technic—or professional methodology—and how the very continuance of an educational project may be bound up in a close relationship between the schools and the practitioners in the field who were pioneering in the untouched field of understanding and influencing the behavior of human beings.

But technic apart from its scientific, historical, and philosophical foundations is a trade, not a profession. One may become trained so that he acquires skill in the manipulation of his material; in fact one may become expert, even in the technics of human relations, and have none of the professional spirit whatever. A trained person may know “how”; but he does not need to know “why”; it is not even necessary that he be able to explain how or relate what he is doing to its general setting. If there is a single test of the professional as contrasted with the trained

⁴ Jesse F. Steiner, *op. cit.*, p. 490.

worker, it is that he sees his particular task in relation to its scientific backgrounds and its fullest implications. He habitually relates a particular instance to general principles, and he is capable of doing this because he is disciplined in those theories that sum up both method and content in the social sciences.

Such a concept is elusive. The family of the unemployed man must be protected against its economic defenselessness, the abandoned child against its physical defenselessness, the paroled delinquent against his social defenselessness. There is not much time to spend on why, when it takes all the time at one's disposal to learn how; nor does it seem particularly pertinent to spend a lot of time poring over the dusty volumes of history or in mastering the problems of philosophy in the face of such exigent situations. And so the practitioner has taught himself in the school of experience how these essential tasks of a society of derivative contacts may best be performed; and he has insisted that his professional schools gather up all that is known of method and equip their students with a thorough mastery of these accumulated technics before they are graduated.

This is not primarily an educational program. Method is learned by doing. Training is secured by hard and continued practice. If the school attempts to meet the demand that its graduates shall be skilled social workers it must devote its entire time to supervising its pupils at practical tasks—and the early educational projects did not attempt much else. But that is to deny that social work is more than a skilled occupation—difficult and requiring a good deal of time to master, but still a task for which one needs to be trained, not educated. Often the analogy with the laboratory or the clinic is advanced as an argument for the educational possibility of teaching the technics of social work in the schools. The comparison is fallacious. The real analogy is the internship, in which the physician, already well educated, is gradually disciplined in the technic of medicine. The laboratory and the clinic are places where students learn the nature of the

material about which they are studying. They give reality to the classes and the books. Without the clinic or the laboratory that which is learned would remain lifeless data, and theories, beautifully worked out in system and order, would remain lifeless and unreal. They are essential tools of education in the scientific disciplines, without which sciences could scarcely be taught. So students in schools of social work need contact with the subject matter of their studies—people, communities, the State, social agencies, and all the rest of the myriad forms of human relationships with which they must later deal. They need to know how they act, how they respond, which methods are used and which are not, and why. They must even acquire familiarity with such problems by handling them themselves. Education for social work without field work would be sterile; but field work cannot be conceived as giving a student a finished ease in method if the school is not to abandon all its other educational responsibilities.

While social work was small and obscure, it was possible for it to concentrate on method. It was fortunate that there were these long years since the beginning of the nineteenth century during which leaders in our communities could experiment with methods in dealing with the new problems created by the emerging society of derivative contacts. Method had to come first, for the problems had to be faced and solved. When the pioneers accumulated some technics, they had to pass them on to their new and younger fellow workers. This they did, first by apprenticeship, then by apprenticeship and classes organized by the agencies, and finally the school was added. But they all were founded on the urgent need to learn a method, and to transmit the knowledge of it.

In what way does the immediate future differ from this very recent past? The first difference is magnitude; the second is that the great development of social work will be—and already is—under public auspices. Though the need for relief for the unem-

ployed may entirely disappear, the State is committed to a program of social security which will have to be administered by a well-educated body of public servants. State and local public welfare in all its varied activities will never be permitted to sink back into its niggardly and inefficient condition of the past; and the whole field of delinquency, adult quite as much as juvenile, must be socialized, administered by a highly educated and competent personnel. All this means a vast extension of services accurately included within social work.

Every particle of method that the social work of the last two or three generations has forged for our use will be needed. In addition, all signs point to the need for a more broadly conceived educational program. In a project so vast that the budgets of nations are shifted to carry the burden, administrators must be social interpreters of their generation; capable of understanding the why of the conditions they are handling, as well as of guiding the direction of social progress. It is a task unlike that of any other profession. No other assumes responsibility for analyzing social forces or for guiding them. Social engineer is sometimes used, but no word quite explains it. We can no longer be satisfied with a program any smaller than it is humanly possible to envisage. The questions are not only how much does it cost to feed the family of an unemployed man, or how may medical service best be afforded for him. They must also include such considerations as: Is it possible for the State to furnish work for the unemployed while private industry cannot use them? Is social insurance feasible? When the property tax on which local activities are financed fails, what other resources are available for the care of the dependent, and how legally may they be tapped? It's a tremendous responsibility which is now being placed on the shoulders of social work—although every social worker who has had over a decade's experience knows that it is not entirely new; that communities always expected that sort of guidance from

them. It is merely greater in extent, but so much greater as to have all the appearances of a new challenge.

I look forward to the profession of social work in its public personnel to take on some of the characteristics of English public service and education for social work to learn something from the thorough manner in which the young Englishman is educated for public service. There a young man on entering a university chooses whether he plans to go into a private profession or into public service. If the latter, he then pursues studies in those social and humanistic subjects which lay a broad cultural foundation for his life work. At the close of what is our second or third graduate year he takes a civil-service examination, and if he passes he is placed on the eligible list from which all appointments are made. He is not trained, but he is educated; and he gives a grade of service in efficiency and honesty that is the envy of the world. The English civil servant is not a professional, even when he is administering a project we consider social service, such as the poor laws. Nothing is further from his mind. He is conscious of the need for no special method.

We do not need to scrap any of that unique gift American social work has given the modern world: the careful formulation of method and the habit of mind which looks upon all social problems as soluble if the proper method can be found. But we shall probably find it necessary to undergird such a facility with a more thorough basis of those scientific and humanistic disciplines on which sound judgment regarding social questions is dependent.

If education for social work in America lives up to its opportunities, it can combine the excellencies of the two systems and graduate professionals in the broadest conception of that term, those having a thorough foundation in the appropriate sciences, histories, and philosophy, together with enough appreciation of the nature and possibilities of the special technics of social work

so they can readily and accurately master them in their first and apprenticeship years on the job.

If the schools of social work are to meet this challenge they will need, at least, a larger and a better equipped body of teachers, and they will need far more money than they have ever had or are likely to have in the near future, so far as can be seen at present.

The day—and usefulness—of the part-time teacher is past. The custom of depending upon prominent local social workers giving part of their time to schools is bad educational policy. As some one has said, they give the tired remainder of their time. Real teaching is a full-time job. There must be time for research and for publication. Students must be able to consult their instructors. Some sorts of instruction need a good deal of supervision. The teacher must have time to participate as a member of a faculty in determining the policies of the school.

The school must have outstanding persons as teachers; those who have acquired a reputation in that aspect of social work in which they teach. This means that the school as an educational institution with its fairly low scale of salaries must compete with the field of social work for its personnel; and if the desired person is a man and an executive in addition to being a leader in his field his salary is likely to be higher than most schools can afford.

The teachers must also meet the standards in preparation, in scholarship, and productive capacity set up by the educational institution with which they are affiliated. To attract the right sort of students, as well as to educate them properly, the instructors in a school of social work must compare favorably with instructors in other departments on the campus. This combination is an exceedingly difficult one. It may be possible to secure it only after a lapse of time, as the graduates of schools, having the educational qualifications before they enter the field, return to the schools as instructors after they have demonstrated their outstanding qualities as social workers.

And all of this means a good deal of money. Any educational project is very expensive. It is significant that medical education in this country came into its present preëminence and enviable excellence not only because an epoch-making study of the situation was produced which included recommendations of a radical nature, and not only because more than half the medical schools of the country were closed, thus economizing on personnel and plant, but also because the great foundations poured an unprecedented amount of money into the approved medical schools for adequate buildings, for adequate equipment, but above all for adequate teaching personnel, enabling medical schools to attract the well-equipped leaders in their field at salaries and conditions of work which could not be refused.

There is no good angel ready to render any such service for social-work education—at least not visibly. So far schools have operated literally on a shoestring. If it were not for the devotion of their backers, and the free teaching services given by the social workers, even those which have survived would have gone under. The future of social work in America, as it faces its awe-inspiring opportunities, depends just as much upon an adequate equipment of its schools as upon its own financial support. It is questionable whether a school can be established on an income of less than a hundred thousand dollars a year. And, even so, it must be in connection with a first-class university where the basic social sciences, humanities, and philosophies are taught. That sum is needed for the professional aspects of education if it is to approximate adequacy in personnel, research, publications, and equipment. The future will have to answer the question of how so much money may be secured. It will come when public opinion understands the cost of entrusting its grave social problems to inadequately equipped workers.

TRAINING FOR RESEARCH IN SOCIAL WELFARE

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There are two ways to break a stick. You can whittle away at it until it is severed or you can strike it one sharp, well-directed blow. Circumstances determine your choice between the two methods. Social research is so varied in all of its phases that a meticulous examination of the problems of training would soon bury the examiner under a pile of qualifications, exceptions, and reservations. And there might be very little of the stick left when it had finally been whittled through! In this discussion the bolder method will be used. A little whittling will be done on the broken edges but most of it will be left to the reader.

Training for research in social welfare should be training in making decisions effectively on the basis of information and in mobilizing information for this purpose. Every professional social worker should have some training in social research; not in specific methods but rather in the general logical processes, in the strategy of applying information to problems, and in the role of a consumer of the products of research. A good deal of this training should be developed in courses not primarily devoted to method. It should suffuse the entire training program. The same training is essential for the research worker either prior to or concurrent with his training in technique.

Research in universities and elsewhere may be conducted to determine new scientific laws, additions to our store of knowledge. Social agencies, however, exist for organized action to correct undesirable conditions, to ameliorate misery, to reconstruct communities, families, personalities. Their objectives may not be defined clearly. Their programs may be unsound. Nevertheless, they exist and gain support not to meditate but to act. Thinking may be the most important ingredient in their activity but it is a means to intelligent action, not an end in itself. Hence research

must be a means to effective activity, an essential basis for a program of work which is so executed that it actually accomplishes the purposes for which the agency was established, as amended in the light of subsequent developments. These purposes are chosen by the dominant founders and supporters of the agency to express what they expect it to do. Once purposes are formulated, *decisions* are necessary with respect to the procedure of realizing them in specific cases, under changing circumstances, and in the light of the results of previous work. This is true of case work with a fatherless family or a delinquent boy, of organizing community groups or conducting educational programs, of securing civic reforms or improving public health. If purposes are conceived vaguely, decisions may be more difficult to make but they are no less necessary if any consistent or regular course of activity is undertaken by the agency.

Implicit in every decision is a forecast of the future. Some result is expected which will further the purposes of the agency. The decision may be made by a professional staff member, an executive, or a board of directors. Unless the agency does not take its avowed purposes seriously, it should be interested to know whether past activity actually produced the results that were expected. It will also be concerned to know how reasonable its expectations of future results may be. A family may be induced to move to a new neighborhood to free one of its members from association with a gang of delinquents and to change his behavior in a more socially acceptable direction. After the move, has his behavior improved? Will it continue to improve? On the basis of several instances of this procedure, can it be regarded as effective? Sometimes these questions can be answered quite readily; often they require painstaking investigation.

Research is commonly regarded as a process of "finding the facts." But it is idle to find facts if they have no bearing on action. They may not always lead to activity, for in some instances they

may justify a conclusion that no useful activity is feasible at the time—a real decision and not just failure to act. The reason research seeks facts in social welfare is that they are essential to decisions which would be hazardous or incomplete without them. A metropolitan Y.M.C.A. considers a proposal to build a branch building in a certain neighborhood. It expects to attract several hundred members for the branch if it does so. Before deciding it undertakes to determine the size, characteristics, and trends of the population in the vicinity of the proposed building to correct its expectation or place it on a firmer basis. It would be absurd for the Y.M.C.A. to conduct population research without some special problem that required it. To say it was finding the facts on population without specifying the connection between the inquiry and the problem in which it is to be used would be almost as incomplete as to state that riding on streetcars is part of a case worker's professional duties. Research in social work consists not merely of finding facts but also of preparing them for use, digesting, analyzing, relating those facts which are relevant so that they can be employed in making decisions.

In the everyday work of the social worker many decisions are made without elaborate investigation. If a child appears to be nearsighted and is failing in his schoolwork, no research is necessary to decide to secure glasses in order to improve his rate of educational progress. If, on the other hand, there is a sharp increase in truancy in the schools with no evident explanation, it is necessary to investigate all promising clues, to search out facts that may be significant, to trace relationships. If this search is successful, it is then necessary to determine the effectiveness, cost, and feasibility of various treatment measures, and to secure as adequate a basis as time and resources permit for deciding what shall be done to control the problem. Decisions of this type do not flow from the facts automatically. They require some guessing, imagination, judgment, and inventiveness. But guessing or

wishing which is not sobered by observation is, like a shot in the dark, almost sure to miss the mark. Good executives and professional workers combine information with imagination, checking each against the other, forming tentative decisions and revising them continually in the light of further experience. This requires considerable skill. When problems are too complicated, too difficult, or too extensive to be resolved without a division of labor, research emerges as a distinct set of activities and is less tightly interwoven with the other phases of making decisions. Hence a degree of separation and freedom is necessary but the connection must be maintained in some degree or reestablished periodically if the research activities are to fulfill their function in the division of labor in social work.

It is somewhat beside the point here to consider how much initiative the research worker must take in connecting research with the current activities of social agencies. It is the writer's opinion that at the present time research workers should meet executives at least halfway in applying research. They should not stand ready (and inert) like a dictionary waiting for the executive to consult them if it occurs to him to do so. However, this is a problem of organization and allocation of functions. Local circumstances will determine the optimum arrangement. The preceding discussion applies to the professional worker and the executive quite as much as the researcher and it is not greatly affected by their specific cleavage of functions. Even when a social worker or agency director is conducting a study for his own use, he still must face the importance and difficulty of developing it as a basis for decision and action rather than an interesting exercise or an expression of mere curiosity.

Training for research should not be limited to students who expect to become research experts. It should be extended to reach the future executives, supervisors, and professional social workers who will be consumers of research products rather than pro-

ducers. They need to know how to appraise the product of research, how to formulate their needs for assistance from research, how to use research efficiently. They especially need to be able to recognize opportunities to employ research in connection with their problems. Ideally they should be well trained to conduct small-scale research projects without specialized technical assistance. Effective team play requires that they understand, at least in a general way, the methods and approach of research workers who in turn should understand the problems and point of view of administrator and practitioner.

In any program of training there will be one or more courses in research technique. These courses are very important, for a research worker must master fundamental operations so that they become "second nature" and enable him to collect and summarize information quickly and efficiently. There is a temptation, however, to introduce too many variations in technique to the confusion and frightening of the student. It is enough to let him know that these devices exist and that he can learn them when and if he ever needs them. Problems of presenting information concisely and interpreting its significance are usually more important than technical analysis as such, yet they are most likely to be omitted from courses in research. Adequate textbooks on phases of research other than technique in the narrower sense of the term have not been written. Perhaps Fry's *Technique of Social Investigation* is closer to what is needed than any other.

A textbook is a misfortune if the instructor leans on it too heavily. The traditional course in chemistry starts with an experiment on the distinction between compounds and mixtures. Iron filings are mixed with sulphur, tested, then ignited, and tested again. Every student knows before the experiment that they form a mixture, then a compound. The experiment is good training for his memory. One chemistry teacher changed the experiment by using mercury instead of iron filings, thereby presenting

to his students a real problem in solving which they were compelled to think through the various aspects of the experiment. If they relied on the analogous experiment in the textbook their conclusions were wrong. Social research should be taught in the same way, by means of real problems, with emphasis on how to go about solving a new problem rather than an imitation and crude analogy. Detective stories, properly used, might be better material for instruction than directions for making a map of juvenile delinquency or computing a correlation between crime and rent levels.

Critical scrutiny of both data and inferences is one of the prime essentials in research. Students should learn to ask: "What biases have affected the data?" "Do these conclusions actually follow from the evidence and are they strongly supported by it?" "What other conclusions are reasonable?" "How can they be tested further?" "What difference does it make in terms of the action to be taken if one conclusion is accepted instead of another?"

At the same time a research worker must learn to utilize even very incomplete data without discarding it needlessly. He must recognize the imperative necessity of making some decision and making it promptly. He must be willing to forgo scientific standards of caution in order to make the most reliable decision possible under the circumstances. Both he and the executive must be ready to make tentative conclusions, to proceed experimentally observing the results of the action which is taken, and to modify them from time to time in the light of a careful checking of the results. Some of these situations may be introduced in classroom work, particularly if instructors establish coöperative relations with social agencies and choose the problems judiciously. A well-directed critical analysis of selected research reports is also a profitable approach to social-welfare research.

The last few chips to be whittled relate to some work that

needs to be done before research training can be organized as it should be. We need an accurate job analysis of the principal types of research positions. We need explicit formulations of the role of research in social work and the way in which its functions are related in concrete instances to the administration of social agencies and the practice of professional social work. We need information (which, however, each instructor can gain for himself) on the abilities and information that students bring to the research courses. Well-written descriptions of typical research projects emphasizing the points with which most of the preceding discussion has been concerned are greatly needed. We also need to develop a better understanding of research throughout social work so that it may be related to professional and executive activity in an increasingly effective manner.

SOCIAL WORK AND EDUCATION

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I. Parallel developments with possible interrelationships have been taking place in the fields of education and social work. It seems probable that these have come about through influences from the various schools of psychology, psychiatry, sociology, and philosophy. As a result certain innovations have taken place in methodology and approach both in social work and education. In a cause-effect account of educational history every phenomenon is seen as a response to human needs. This is true also of all other social institutions, attitudes, and habit patterns, whether they are meeting that need adequately or not. An effort is being made to understand and apply this principle in formulating present-day educational and social-work programs.

Recognition of the worth of the individual and the understanding of his unique needs has come about in both education and social work. Caroline Zachry says, "Education implies and encompasses the general adjustment of the individual and his environment." An ideal included in modern educational and social-work programs is "to every child according to his individual capacities and his particular physical and mental needs."¹

II. The goals of education and social work are in accord fundamentally. In practice there is a tendency to see a problem as educational, hygienic, social, or individual. This indicates the lack of an integrated point of view, inadequate diagnosis of causal factors and their interrelationships, and poor evaluation of the possible treatment approaches. Integration of thinking and practice is needed within the special categories set up by social institutions which have developed in the attempt to meet

¹ Caroline B. Zachry, "Mental Hygiene of the Classroom," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, April 1933, pp. 128-146.

human needs. Goals and practices become separated within specializations. The educator and the social worker do not always understand each other. In our complex society they often work separately to achieve the same goals. Rivalry and competition are not unknown; criticism, differences, resentment, defenses exist on both sides. Striving for leadership and recognition in both groups has sometimes blinded one to the contribution of the other. Both are perhaps closer together now than ever before. This is being achieved through the broader vision of intelligent leaders and through increased understanding between individual teachers and social workers in their common interest—the welfare of the child, through various forms of social organization, and in joint educational conferences. There is great need for far more of this kind of understanding and working together.

III. Recognition of the rights and needs of the child has come late in the history of social institutions. In the past discipline was enforced in family life and in our social institutions through a system of compelling external obedience through unmitigated force. Methods of repression, restriction, order, conformity, competition, and punishment were commonly accepted as necessary to individual control by the social group. Some of the effects of these methods on personality growth, the anguish and suffering caused are glimpsed in the literature through reminiscences shown in biography and autobiography.²

Controls are a necessary part of social development; unlicensed freedom is destructive. The question arises how to develop control most effectively, permitting satisfaction and growth at the same time. It is my opinion that the most permanent and effective controls come from within. Conformity to social standards motivated from within is an evidence of personality growth, whereas if imposed by external force it creates

² Clara Bassett, *Mental Hygiene in the Community* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934), 394 pages.

revolt or submission—both of which are unhealthy. Social attitudes toward behavior have a powerful influence and a lasting effect on the child's inner life, reflected by his social behavior. They are initiated early in the child's experiences beginning with the effect of parental attitudes on behavior reactions. Absence of such control or faulty application through example and influence of the parent may bring about an absence of these patterns in later life. It matters not whether we think of these reactions as conditioned behavior responses, early habit pattern formation, or strong "super-ego" influences on the emotional development of the child. Without the establishment of effective social control through early parent-child relationships the individual finds it difficult to make a satisfactory adjustment to society in adult life. However, when such controls are superimposed by extreme methods they lose their force, and behavior is motivated on the basis of fear or revenge, which makes constant and continuous use of this method of control necessary and at the same time ineffective and destructive. This occurs with the delinquent child and later the delinquent adult, who exhibits antisocial behavior. When strong, effective controls from within are lacking the child fails to develop capacities for a satisfactory social adjustment.

Social workers and educators should recognize their function in helping to establish these controls in meeting the needs of the individual child. The longer this process is postponed in a person's life, the more difficult it is to establish these controls. When we fail as parents, teachers, and social workers, society pays the penalty of destructive behavior of the individual later on. Social workers and educators are seeking methods of establishing or helping the person to develop such controls for himself.

H. A. Overstreet says: "Education presents itself more profoundly as a process of training the emotional life—of socializing the personal desires—eliminating baseless and degrading fears—widening affections; building up resistance against un-

reasonable herd-pressure local prejudice; developing a hospitality to scientific thinking.”⁸

How can social workers and teachers in their respective fields help to bring this about? Fundamental individual needs may be classified under three general headings: the need for security, for affection, and creative activity.

One of the most effective ways of building up security is by eliminating *feelings of difference*. The destructive effects of comparative emphasis on differences have been seen too often in families where the superiority of one child is held up again and again as a challenge to another who is failing. The classroom teacher frequently uses as a spur to Johnnie the superior achievement of William to the benefit of neither. In adult life the marked emphasis placed on a superior work record of a fellow worker is expected to challenge the person to greater achievement, which seldom if ever follows. If a person is unable to measure up to the successes of his fellowmen, he is quite likely to sink into a state of despondency, self-abasement, resentment, failure, and possibly antisocial activities.

How can “feelings of difference” common to all in varying degrees be lessened or rendered less destructive to personality growth? The constructive effects of emphasis on success, praise for achievement, appreciation of small contributions, and finally recognition for worth-while contributions of the individual to the social order are known to the successful parent using so-called “common-sense” methods, to teachers who motivate the child to a learning attitude, and to social workers whose relationships with people result in their growing ability to face and solve difficulties. These tools must be used with discretion and understanding of results.

The opposite method of calling attention to failure, constant criticism, and derision may in some instances challenge the indi-

⁸ Clara Bassett, *op cit.*, p. 199.

vidual but more often threatens him and hampers his development.

A red-headed freckled boy of twelve with prominent teeth and a slouchy posture was repeating sixth grade. His pretty little sister of ten years would soon catch up with him. Schoolwork was easy for her. Teachers and principal despaired of him. He seemed lazy, indifferent, liked to show off, and chose undesirable companions. His schoolwork was going backward rather than forward. The parents received frequent notices of his failure from his teachers. Father scolded and was disappointed, mother was sympathetic and oversolicitous, and sister made fun of him. After consultations and careful diagnostic study of the boy by a child-guidance clinic the teacher worked out a new program, temporarily lowering standards for requirements, giving him assignments on which he could succeed, and gradually increasing them in accordance with his progress. He was given a leading role in a dramatic performance in which he had long craved to have a part but was considered too slow. Attention, praise, and recognition of effort and achievement were stressed. Notes of failures were discontinued. His parents joined in the program of encouragement and arranged for him to join in neighborhood recreation and sports activities. The contrast in this boy's growth and development astonished teachers and parents. This is a simple illustration of accomplishment resulting from a constructive approach to what appeared a hopeless situation.

Craving for affection is also fundamental to well-rounded development and, when affection is denied, disastrous and devastating effects follow. Read the life stories of our youthful criminals for evidence (Clifford Shaw, *The Boy's Own Story*, *Jack Roller*; Ira Wile, *Two-Gun Crowley*). In the satisfaction of this craving for affection a balance between deprivation and indulgence is essential. Overindulgence and spoiling is not real affection but a sign of rejection and has the same destructive effect as

deprivation. Rejection often goes unrecognized except in extreme cases where actual neglect and abuse call for legal action. More acute understanding and recognition of emotional needs and how to meet them is essential. The child or adult who feels secure in knowing he is accepted, loved, and understood by his family, his teachers, and his associates in spite of deprivations in other respects is most likely to grow and develop adequately.

Finally, we may have confidence based on recognition, security in being loved and accepted but, for ultimate satisfaction, these will not be permanent or growth-continuous without opportunity for creative outlets or activities in the social group or for social benefits.

A self-centered girl much loved by her parents and relatives, given every material advantage, admired by her teachers and friends, making high grades throughout high school and college, popular in her own social set, entered a school of social work anticipating a brilliant career. In this new setting she found herself confused and at a loss. Until she was able to orient herself, think independently about life situations which were completely unfamiliar, and develop a capacity to make her own contribution, she had a most difficult time. Life offers countless opportunities for such creative living. When they are passed over the person sinks to a dead level or carries on a meaningless program of activities escaping social responsibility.

IV. In the social processes which contribute to individual growth and development is there a common meeting ground of social case work and education? There are areas in educational and social-work programs where overlapping is valuable in the development and use of resources. This has been true in the field of physical and mental health and social work. The medical, psychiatric, and nursing professions, educators, and social workers have united forces in developing health programs in the community. There is still great need of further unification of effort to achieve their objectives more adequately.

The use of psychological testing services by social workers and educators has created an area where collaboration is valuable in the interpretation of psychological findings and the development of skills in understanding their application to the growth and adjustment of the individual.

In the preschool and nursery-school programs, in the enforcement of compulsory education, in vocational guidance and parent-education programs, we are beginning to work together. The vistas for further development are still broad. What has been accomplished by joint working serves as an example of the results to be obtained.

A laboratory example of the value of working together as educators and social workers is demonstrated by the visiting-teacher services, child-guidance clinics, and vocational counseling. The special contribution of social case work to the educational field is illustrated by these services. Such services of social workers have enabled "the school to reach out into the home and neighborhood, to study the family background and home relationships, to cooperate with other social agencies in securing medical, social, and recreational treatment needed, and to plan an educational and vocational program which is based on a comprehensive knowledge of the whole child and his needs."⁴ The visiting teacher assists the school in cultivating a closer relationship between the home and school, and community institutions and agencies, thus serving the child in utilizing resources which are beneficial to his continued growth. Preventive and constructive work is made possible early in the child's experience if his difficulties are recognized and understood.

A large percentage of the child's life is spent under conditions and influences which are comparatively unknown to the school. Within the school are great opportunities for the child's adjustment to life. There are frequent exceptional situations demand-

⁴ Clara Bassett, *op cit*, p. 233.

ing a further knowledge of the whole child, and treatment which the average teacher cannot carry out alone. Such situations can be treated jointly through relationships between teacher and child, teacher and parents, social worker and child, social workers and parents, and social worker and teacher, providing skills in treatment of human relationships have been highly developed on the part of social worker and teacher. The social worker through her training and experience in specialized children's or psychiatric clinics working with children, and in her studies of family relationships with actual experience in the treatment of these relationships, has a special skill to offer which it is impossible to encompass in any teacher-training program. We need to understand each other's fields and specialized skills but it is difficult to conceive of the person so qualified by experience and training to serve in either or both specializations. It appears that such a mixed training program would be confusing and handicapping. Therefore, it is necessary that we work together, combine our skills, pool our findings, evaluate our approaches, and concert our efforts toward a program of serving the needs of those individuals who cannot make their social adjustment alone, and who unless helped will ultimately be a burden on society.

V. In summarizing the contribution of social case work to the education of the child it is difficult to isolate factors, since in the educational field and in the field of group work there are many functions in common. Perhaps the difference lies chiefly in the approach. When social workers began to recognize the need for individualization of the various members of the family they became more consciously aware of the child as an individual. Heretofore child-welfare programs had been centered on the building of institutions for dependent, delinquent, and defective children, many of no known origin, with no life history, and with limited or inadequate parental influence. Social-reform movements concentrated on setting up legal machinery

for dealing with special problems of the dependent, delinquent, and defective child though institutional and commitment programs, still necessary in particular conditions where protection, correction, and training is our only solution. Limitations and heavy costs of these programs were soon realized. Emphasis on more preventive work which begins with an understanding of the individual child and carries over to the individual approach with the adult and the understanding of family relationships has developed. Such a preventive program is still experimental and does not yet eliminate the necessity of salvaging the losses through other kinds of treatment.

The study of the individual child as a whole includes the physical, psychological, social, and emotional factors of his total cumulative life experience including a knowledge of family relationships and environmental influences. This type of study may not be essential or practicable for every child, although we should be aware that all of these factors are operative and related to his growth and development. In particular instances where causation is obscure and behavior symptoms assume serious proportions, such studies made early are necessary to a full understanding and effective treatment of individual needs. The social case worker has a contribution to make in sharing with doctors, psychologists, and educators her specialized experience in study and treatment of these factors. She works through the medium of environmental manipulation, interpretation of causal factors, and in modification of attitudes through her direct relationship with the child, her understanding of the parent, and her participation with parents, teachers, and others in working out a socially useful and individually satisfying program to meet human needs.

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS OF RELIEF FAMILIES IN NORTHWEST MISSOURI

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The statement often is made that a large number of the families who are on the relief rolls are not really in need and that a great deal of relief work, therefore, is being done for families who really do not need it. In order to test out the validity of such assertions the writer made an intensive study of one hundred relief families in Maryville, Missouri, in the spring of 1934. Maryville is a city of about five thousand people in Northwest Missouri. It is located in Nodaway County which a few years ago was considered one of the best agricultural counties in Missouri.¹

A schedule was prepared and one hundred relief families were visited in their own homes and interviewed.² Of the families interviewed 72 per cent were married; 15 per cent were widows; 6 per cent were separated (5 women and 1 man interviewed); 4 per cent widows; 2 per cent divorced (2 women interviewed); and 1 per cent single with the mother living with the son. In other words in 27 per cent of the families the home had been broken by death, divorce, separation, or desertion. In 22 per cent of the families there was no husband, as in 15 per cent of the cases the husband was dead and in 7 per cent the husband was separated, divorced, or had deserted. In 12 per cent of the families the husband was disabled and in 4 per cent of the families there was no adult female.

Of the entire one hundred families only 12 per cent were receiving aid from the Maryville Welfare Board previous to 1929.

¹ This paper was prepared for the sociology section of the Missouri Academy of Science meeting held at Columbia, Missouri, December 6-8, 1934.

² The interviews were made by Ellwood Huff, a sociology student at the Northwest Missouri State Teachers College.

At the time the investigation was made 78 per cent of the families were receiving direct material aid while 22 per cent were receiving work relief from the Government. Eighty-four per cent of the families have received direct relief from the Maryville Welfare Board or from the Federal Government at some time in the past. Of this number 2 per cent have received aid for the past ten years, while 50 per cent have received aid only during the past year. Twelve per cent have received aid for two years and 7 per cent for five years.

Fifty-two per cent of the families have lived in Maryville over ten years, while 9 per cent have lived here less than one year. Thirty-two per cent have lived in Maryville all their life. Thirty per cent own their own homes, 69 per cent rent, and one lives in a house that is donated. Two per cent pay two dollars a month rent, while 1 per cent pays fifteen dollars a month. The median rent paid is six dollars. Thirty-eight per cent have lived in their present home for less than a year while 12 per cent have lived there over ten years. The median length of time lived in their present home is two years.

The total number of members in the one hundred families is 448. Of this number, 219 are adults. Five per cent have only one member in the family, while a like number has nine members. The median number in the family is four, which means only two children. This is contrary to the usual condition as it is a common knowledge that large families and poverty go together. This was true in Maryville a few years ago, but at the present time, because of the lack of employment, families with a small number of children have been forced to secure relief while a few years ago they were able to secure enough employment to support themselves.

Twenty-eight per cent of the families have no children while 1 per cent has eight children. The median number of children is two. The median age of the boys is eight years, while the median

age for the boys of school age is eleven years. The median age of all the girls is ten years, while the median age of the girls of school age is eleven years. The median grade of the boys is the fourth grade and for the girls it is the fifth grade. This seems to indicate that the boys are retarded one year while the girls are in their normal grade in school.

Fifty-six per cent of these families have had no steady employment since 1929; another 8 per cent have had no steady work since 1930; another 8 per cent have been out of steady work since 1931; 20 per cent since 1932; and only 8 per cent have been unemployed since 1933. In 66 per cent of the cases the husband is a common laborer and in 12 per cent he is skilled in some line of work. In the other 22 per cent of the families the husband is missing. In 7 per cent of the families the wife works and in 17 per cent the children are working.

The median grade reached in school was the eighth grade for both husband and wife. Three per cent of the wives and 2 per cent of the husbands have no schooling at all, while 2 per cent of the wives and 5 per cent of the men are high-school graduates. One of the men is a college graduate and is an ordained minister. Two of the wives have taught in the rural schools.

All the houses were frame buildings. The median number of rooms is four. However, four per cent have only one room while five have seven rooms. The median number of sleeping rooms is two and the median number of persons sleeping in each room is two, although in three cases nine sleep in one room and in ten cases five sleep in a room. In 18 per cent of the families there are five or more people sleeping in one room. In 72 per cent of the homes there are no clothes closets.

In 16 per cent of the homes there are no rugs or carpets on the floors. In nearly every home that was papered the wallpaper was old and worn. Ninety-six per cent of the homes have window shades, 75 per cent have curtains, and only 4 per cent have drapes.

Only 28 per cent of the homes have electric lights, while 72 per cent use kerosene lamps. A survey made recently on a nationwide scale shows that 90 per cent of the city families of our country have electric lights.³ In Birmingham 66.4 per cent of the dwellings have electric lights; in Baton Rouge, 69.9; and in Paducah, Kentucky, 68.8.

Thirty-four relief families in Maryville have no sewing machines while 65 have foot-power machines and one has an electric sewing machine.

The median number of rocking chairs is two to a family and the median number of straight chairs is five. One family of nine had only three straight chairs and eight families had no rocking chairs. Only 16 have book cases and 46 have library tables.

Sixty-one families have no musical instruments of any kind. Two have pianos, five have phonographs, four have organs, sixteen radios, five brass or reed instruments, two have a piano and radio, one has a piano and brass instrument, and four have a phonograph and radio. Ninety-one per cent have no sheet music of any description in their homes. This seems to indicate that there is a decided lack of musical appreciation in the homes of the relief families, and it suggests that here is a big field open for adult education along the line of music.

The artistic equipment of the home from the standpoint of pictures leaves much to be desired, as there are 25 per cent of the families with no pictures in the home and 18 per cent have only one picture on the wall. The median number of pictures is two. Sixty-three per cent of the families have no large photographs and 69 per cent have no small photographs.

Much has been said about relief families spending money on gasoline for use in automobiles, but our study does not bear out

³ This survey was made by Federal Government investigators and is published under the title "The Real Property Inventory of 1934." It may be secured from the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C.

this popular belief, for we found that 93 per cent of the families have no motor cars and that the 7 per cent that do have cars have ones of pretty old vintage. Five have model "T" Fords, one has a 1925 model Hupmobile, and one has an old Buick. Of the eight that have trucks, five have old model "T" Ford trucks, one has a Dodge truck, one has a General Motors car, and one has a Buick—all old and decrepit. Nearly all these cars and trucks are owned by people who are on work relief and not on direct relief.

The nation-wide investigation referred to above shows that 50 per cent of the families in cities have motor cars. However, in Birmingham only 30.7 per cent have motor cars; Indianapolis, 53.3 per cent; Nashua, N. H., 39.9 per cent; Waterbury, Conn., 36.4 per cent; Wheeling, 38.8 per cent; Cleveland, 56 per cent.

The cultural life of the relief families as shown by books and periodicals they own is not such as to add to the prestige of our fair city as a city of "culture and refinement." It is found that 18 per cent have no books at all, not even a Bible or hymn book; 45 per cent have from one to five books, and only 2 per cent have as many as forty books. Ninety-four per cent of the families have no books on poetry, 69 have no volumes of fiction, 86 have no history books, 98 have no works of drama, 89 no encyclopedias, while 75 have religious books. Only 4 per cent of the books are new. Most of the books, however, are in fair condition.

Sixty-five families have no daily or weekly newspapers. Fourteen take a metropolitan daily paper, seventeen take the local daily paper, *The Maryville Forum*, while four take both the metropolitan and the local paper. The metropolitan papers taken are the following: *Kansas City Star*, 13; *St. Joseph News Press*, 3; *Chicago Tribune*, 1; *Omaha Bee News*, 1. Eighty-four families subscribe for no magazines. The sixteen families that receive magazines get twenty-five distributed as follows: *Time*, 1; *Woman's World*, 3; *Household*, 3; *Cappers's Weekly*, 1; *Red*

Book, 1; *American*, 1; *Pathfinder*, 2; *McCall's*, 1; *Word and Way*, 1; *Comfort*, 4; *Farmer's Wife*, 1; *Pictorial Review*, 2; *Good Stories*, 1; *Woman's Home Companion*, 1; and *Successful Farmer*, 2.

The kitchen equipment of most of the families is very inadequate. In many cases lard buckets are used in place of kettles and stew pans. Eighty-seven families have no double boilers and fifty-three have no roasting pans. Seventy-one families use a wood or coal stove for cooking, while twenty-nine use oil stoves.

Ninety-three families have no telephone in their home. Seventy have no washing machine, 12 have hand-power washing machines, 17 have electric machines, and one has a gasoline washing machine. One family has no iron, 79 have stove irons, and 20 have electric irons.

Only 13 per cent of the homes have bath tubs as compared with 74 for the cities over the whole country. In Charleston, S. C., 43.6 per cent of the dwellings have bath tubs; Paducah, Kentucky, 48.3; Wheeling, 51; Sacramento, 84.9; Cleveland, 90.8; Birmingham, 47.5; Indianapolis, 63.9; Knoxville, 51.1.

Ten per cent of the relief families have lavatories and 21 per cent have sinks. Seventeen per cent have indoor toilets as compared with 82 per cent for the whole country. Proper bathroom facilities were found in 73.7 per cent of the dwellings in Atlanta; 97.9 per cent in Burlington, Vt.; 51.1 per cent in Charleston, S. C.; 95.5 per cent in Cleveland; 53 per cent in Frederick, Md.; 61.5 per cent in Jackson, Miss.; 70 per cent in Oklahoma City; 55.6 per cent in Paducah, Kentucky; 67.5 per cent in Topeka.

Thirty relief families use city water while seventy use well water.

In 29 families the garbage is disposed of by just throwing it out the back door; in 35 cases it is fed to the chickens; 22 families feed it to the hogs; 5 haul it away; 8 burn it, and one buries it.

Various kinds of animals are kept which help with the food supply and shows that the families are trying to help themselves. Eighteen families have one hog each, three families have two hogs each, and one family has three hogs. Four families have one cow each, two families have two cows each, and one has three cows. Two families have two horses each and one has three horses. Two families have one goat each and one has three goats. Twenty-five families are raising chickens. The flocks range from five to thirty. The median is twelve.

Although this community is located in a dairy center, 50 per cent of the relief families do not use any milk. Thirty-one per cent use one quart of milk a day, six use two quarts, two use three quarts, eight use four quarts, and three use eight quarts a day. The families that use a great deal of milk are those that own their own cows.

A community garden has been operated during the past two years by relief families under the direction of the Maryville Welfare Board. In addition to this, every relief family that had a garden plot available planted a garden. Of the one hundred families investigated, 91 have gardens.

Recently the writer attended a State Welfare meeting where considerable discussion took place over the question as to whether or not relief families should be allowed to keep dogs. One speaker stressed the "spiritual value" of dogs and the consensus of opinion of the delegates seemed to be that this factor was of enough importance to warrant relief families keeping their dogs. Among the relief families in Maryville that the writer investigated 36 per cent owned dogs and 21 per cent owned cats.

The National Recreation Association⁴ made a survey recently in regard to the leisure-time activities of 5,000 people, 80 per cent of whom were 21 years of age or older. Of these fewer than

⁴ "Leisure Hours of Five Thousand People," published by National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York City.

half were employed gainfully except on part time. The greater number reported that they had used their free time to increase their reading. Newspaper readers led the list. One person in four reported reading more newspapers and magazines than during the previous year. Reading, listening to the radio, attending movies, visiting, and entertaining were most frequently mentioned.

The study of the relief families in Maryville shows that 30 per cent of the adults do no reading at all, while 39 per cent read less than five hours a week, 30 per cent read from six to ten hours a week, and only one per cent spends fifteen hours a week in reading. As far as listening to the radio is concerned, our investigation shows that 88 per cent of the families spend no time at all listening to the radio, 5 per cent spend an average of five hours a week, while 7 per cent spend from six to ten hours a week listening to the radio. Attendance at movies is practically negligible. Eighty-six per cent do not spend any time playing cards, while 14 per cent spend five hours a week or less at this pastime.

Seventeen per cent of the families do not spend any time in visiting their neighbors and friends; 68 per cent spend from one to five hours a week in visiting; and 15 per cent spend from six to ten hours a week in visiting. Ninety-six per cent do not belong to any social clubs.

This investigation shows a great need for some form of organized leisure-time activities for both adults and children, as it seems there is no provision made at all by any organization for an organized program of recreation for the adults, while a very small percentage of the children are reached by organized play groups. Only 15 per cent of the boys are reached by the Boy Scouts and Pathfinders, while only 9 per cent of the girls are touched by the Girl Scouts. Only 10 per cent are reached by school clubs. Only 4 per cent of the families belong to social clubs, while 43 per cent spend some time at the community cen-

ter each week. This leaves 57 per cent that do not even come in contact with the activities of the community center which is located in their very midst.

Sixteen per cent of the families have no church members while in 27 per cent of the families every member holds a church membership. Forty-two families belong to the Baptist Church. The other churches represented include the North Methodist, the South Methodist, Catholic, Christian, Church of God, Adventist, and Presbyterian. Fifty-eight families attend church quite regularly.

As chairman of the Maryville Welfare Board the writer desires to say a word in regard to the attitude of the relief families toward work. It is often stated by unthinking people that most of the folks who are on the relief rolls are shiftless, lazy, good-for-nothing loafers. Our experience with families on relief leads us to state emphatically that this statement is not true. During the two years that we have had a part in supervising the community garden we have not had the slightest difficulty in securing men and women from relief families to assist with the work. Last winter when the local CWA supervisor had to lay off some of the workers because of lack of funds, it nearly caused a riot among the relief workers because they all wanted to continue working. This fall when a contractor in our community issued a call for eight common laborers, two hundred men appeared and clamored for an opportunity to work. So we cannot say too strongly that the reason these families are on relief is not because they do not want to work, but it is because in this land of plenty they are not given an opportunity to earn a decent living.

In conclusion it can be stated in summarizing this investigation that 88 per cent of the families that received aid in 1934 were not on the relief rolls previous to 1929; that 30 per cent own their own homes and that the median rent paid by those who rent homes is six dollars a month; the median number of children in

the families is two; 56 per cent of the families have had no steady employment since 1929; the median grade reached in school by both husband and wife is the eighth grade; only 28 per cent of the homes have electric lights; 61 per cent have no musical instruments; 7 per cent have old motor cars and 8 per cent have trucks; 7 per cent have telephones; 30 per cent have washing machines; 13 per cent have bath tubs; 17 per cent have indoor toilets; 30 per cent use city water; 50 per cent of the families do not use any milk; there is a great need for organized leisure-time activities among both adults and children; and, finally, the writer is convinced that relief families are willing to work if given an opportunity.

RESEARCH PROJECTS AND METHODS IN EDUCATIONAL SOCIOLOGY

In order that this section of THE JOURNAL may be of the greatest possible service, its readers are urged to send at once to the editor of this department titles—and where possible descriptions—of current research projects now in process in educational sociology and also those projects in fields of interest kindred to educational sociology. Correspondence upon proposed projects and methods will be welcomed.

NEW YORK STATE STUDY OF EDUCATION

A comprehensive investigation of public education in New York State is being undertaken under the auspices of the State Board of Regents by a special committee headed by Owen D. Young. The study is made possible by a grant of \$500,000 from the General Education Board, a Rockefeller institution. Serving on the committee with Mr. Young are William J. Wallin of Yonkers and John Lord O'Brian of Buffalo. Active direction of the study has been assumed by Dr. Luther H. Gulick, head of the Institute for Public Administration in New York City, with Dr. Samuel P. Capen, chancellor of the University of Buffalo, as his associate.

The investigation will be carried on under eight general divisions as follows:

1. The financial problems of the system, including the examination of the present school-district organization
2. Elementary education, with a view to revaluation of the curriculum and of the auxiliary services, including those for handicapped children, provided through the elementary schools
3. All types of education on the secondary level, whether general or vocational or designed for special groups of students, whether furnished by schools or other agencies, with a view to evaluating the appropriateness and adequacy of these provisions
4. The demands and provisions for adult education and higher education at public expense
5. The selection, training, quality and standards of compensation of the teaching personnel, with a view to determining the future roles of teacher-training institutions
6. Federal aid to reveal the influence of existing Federal subsidies and regulations on the range and character of special types of education and to determine the policy which the State should follow with respect to seeking or accepting Federal appropriations

7. The State Education Department, with a view to determining the effectiveness of its organization and the desirable scope of its functions

8. Revision of the education law

The investigation is an intensive study of every phase of education with an equivalent emphasis upon the character and the cost of education. It is not concerning itself with parochial and private schools. The study will begin with a survey of school surveys, more than a hundred major ones of which have been made since 1918. All groups having an interest in the public-school system will be given an opportunity to express themselves. Experts will be employed by the committee to work on different phases of the study, which will take approximately two years. Each major phase of the study will be headed by a man of outstanding reputation in his particular field.

The four principal members of the staff of the study have been chosen as follows in conformity with the policy of the inquiry in selecting experts living outside of New York State to secure objectivity: Dr. Charles H. Judd, head of the departments of education and psychology in the University of Chicago; Dr. Edward Charles Elliott, president of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; Dr. Albert B. Meredith, director of the department of school administration, New York University; and Dr. Francis T. Spaulding of the Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

STUDY OF THE TRANSITION FROM SCHOOL TO COLLEGE

This study represents an attempt to observe and analyze the experience of a large group of students as they pass through the transition from school to college.¹ It is concerned with the changing social relations and skills of the individual, recognizing that maladjustments involving ideals, attitudes, appreciations, interests, and values often lie behind the surface manifestations of academic failure, or the failure of the individual to realize his potential capacities.

A preliminary study in 1932 and 1933 provided the opportunity to develop a technique and pointed to a number of behavior patterns, growing out of previous experiences, as the basis of successful transition. The present study has enlisted the coöperation of 39 colleges and 103 secondary schools located in New England, New York, New Jersey, and Penn-

¹ Statement prepared by Lincoln B. Hale, Field Representative, through courtesy of Hugh Hartshorne, Department of Research, Yale University Divinity School.

sylvania. Its distinguishing feature is the study and observation of student experience over a time span; namely, the last months of secondary school through freshman year in college.

An original group of 3,162 students furnished the requested information in their secondary-school setting last spring (1934). Over fifteen hundred are freshmen in colleges this year where the study techniques can be administered. The students themselves are revealing through questionnaires their reactions to the various aspects of the experience through which they are passing. This is supplemented by additional information from the schools and colleges. In addition to this material secured for all the study group, a group of 150, picked at random from the large sampling, are being studied by a "case-study" technique. Personal interviews with significant persons in both the precollege and college areas of the student's experience supplement personal interviews with the students and the written record which he has given in common with the entire 1,500.

The study is being conducted under the auspices of the Research Department of the Yale Divinity School in coöperation with the Connecticut Survey Committee on Transition from School to College, the Institute of Human Relations of Yale University, the Edward W. Hazen Foundation, the Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation, and the Student Committee of the Connecticut State Y.M.C.A.

WORKSHOP RULES FOR RESEARCH¹

Dr. W. F. Ogburn addressed the Society for Social Research at the University of Chicago recently on the subject "Workshop Rules for Research." In choosing a topic for research, the essential criterion is some certainty of conclusive result. It must lead to something definitive, with a final and positive form guaranteed by its accuracy.

Sharp differentiation should be made between the scientific procedure and the "intellectualistic." Science deals with facts. "Intellectual gymnastics" are to be avoided. For example, such operations as the definition of concepts, the so-called "pioneering work," and much of analysis, while doubtless helpful to research, are still not science.

If one were to list certain rules which the student should bear in mind

¹ *Bulletin*, The Society for Social Research, December 1934, page 3. These workshop rules for research are reprinted here by permission. They are presented because of their value to graduate students working on thesis problems and to research workers in general.

when choosing and prosecuting any piece of research, they would include such admonitions as:

1. Avoid starting with systems. Organization will come in time, but gradually. It must follow, not precede, research.
2. The subject chosen need not be highly significant or important. The significant fact is that the student learns to do something scientifically; that is, accurately, precisely, conclusively.
3. The first question to raise is, "Can it be done?" Many serious mistakes are made by tackling too large a task. The object of student research is not to influence the world, nor to gain a reputation, but to secure training in research technique.
4. Interest in the subject is insufficient motive for choosing it.
5. Get in a field where something is "popping." Locate the study in a "spot of activity."
6. Remember that general description is poor research. It may be either forced by reason of insufficient data, or highly selective if data are extensive.
7. Avoid emotionalism.
8. Become thoroughly familiar with the subject.
9. Note that, while facts are essential to research, mere "fact finding" is insufficient. Facts must be marshaled, related.
10. Build up a habit of (a) doing research, and (b) publishing. Produce. Avoid stagnation by reason of a "compulsion neurosis for thinking."
11. Record research in a simple, straightforward manner. Avoid such nonessentials, as, for example, references to the Greeks, and exhortations to save humanity.
12. Keep an eye open for by-products.

In the subsequent discussion, it was pointed out that the reaction against the sterility of speculative preoccupation which is indicated by the above suggestions, while doubtless a wholesome change in emphasis, must yet face seriously the vital necessity of defining a central problem in terms of which research may be mobilized, guided, and integrated, if a science of sociology is ever to emerge.

BOOK REVIEWS

Man, The Unknown, by ALEXIS CARREL. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1935, 346 pages.

The nature of man as an organism is fundamental to our social problems and our attempts at their solution. But the extraordinary strides science recently has made toward the understanding of man have so dazzled us that too many of us forget how far short we still are of a workable knowledge of man's nature. It is a sobering, humbling experience to follow, in this book, the thinking of one of our most distinguished American scientists to the conclusion that man is still "the unknown." A reading of this volume will make us wary of biological conjurers who seem to pull ready-made solutions of our social problems out of glands and genes.

Patterns of Culture, by RUTH BENEDICT. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1934, 291 pages.

The legend of Proteus is indeed an epitome of the nature of man. Human nature is not everywhere the same. To the contrary, human nature inevitably takes on the characteristics of the culture against which we view it. The ability to appreciate this fact, to see culture as something apart from ourselves, to realize the ways in which our culture determines our reactions to life situations (which appreciation Kroeber terms the "anthropological attitude") is utterly necessary to an understanding of man's strivings and conflicts, and the problems to which they give rise. Dr. Benedict's book is an excellent introduction to the anthropological attitude.

Social Settlements in New York City, by ALBERT J. KENNEDY, KATHRYN FERRA, AND ASSOCIATES. New York: Columbia University Press, 1935, 599 pages.

This volume is a graphic picture of the role the social settlement plays in the New York City of today. In the past decade social case work has pushed settlement work into the background. More recently there has been much ballyhoo of adult education. Adult education is not new, however, though its problem is enormously enlarged. For more than a generation the settlement has quietly been doing a magnificent piece of adult education. No one interested in the "new" adult education dare ignore this study of the work of the settlement, the second of the studies of the Research Bureau of the New York Welfare Council.

The Social Work Year Book (1935), edited by FRED S. HALL.

New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1935, 698 pages.

Social work has assumed a new importance in our community life of recent years. Not only professional social workers but educators and citizens at large have a vital interest in the problems by which it is faced, and in the agencies set up to deal with them. The Social Work Year Book gives concisely and authoritatively the picture of social work today, and year by year traces changes in its philosophy and scope. An invaluable reference book.

Organizations for Social Welfare, by GEORGE B. MANGOLD.

New York: The Macmillan Company, 1934, 494 pages.

An excellent orientation to the field of contemporary social work; against a background of the evolution of social work and looking past our present welter of problems to future trends in social work. Well adapted to college courses—professional or otherwise—which aim to introduce the student to the latest thinking and procedures with reference to present-day social problems.

Education for an Age of Power, by JOSEPH K. HART. New

York: Harper and Brothers, 1935, 245 pages.

As technology races ahead, it creates innumerable lags and resultant conflicts within our culture. Only educational statesmanship, translated through schooling and discussion, can make it possible to take up these lags before the conflicts they produce shatter our culture. Joseph K. Hart discusses this problem as it presents itself in the Tennessee Valley, where the TVA experiment in technological construction is "a sort of cataclysmic forcing of a century of growth into a few years." A forceful, thought-provoking, indubitably significant book.

Interviewing in Social Work, by PAULINE V. YOUNG. New

York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935, 416 pages.

This book is undoubtedly the most thoroughly rationalized analysis of the process of interviewing which has yet appeared. It is written for social workers. It should be equally interesting to counselors, advisers, and visiting teachers. Much of counseling and adjustment rests upon intelligent interviewing. All too frequently we have not realized that valid interviewing involves skill as well as common sense. One of the McGraw-Hill Publications in Sociology.

Criteria for the Life History, by JOHN DOLLARD. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1935, 288 pages.

Since William Healy first emphasized the significance of the "boy's own story" in approaching the delinquent, the usefulness and validity of life-history material has been the subject of much controversy. Dollard's discussion of criteria against which the adequacy of life-history materials may be judged is a significant contribution to both our practical procedures and our techniques of research.

The Crippled and Disabled, by HENRY H. KESSLER. New York: Columbia University Press, 1935, 337 pages.

An excellent discussion of the education of the crippled child and the rehabilitation of the disabled adult. This volume will be of interest not only to those in the field of social work, but of equal interest to those in education who are concerned with these groups. A useful part of the book is its presentation of the legislation bearing upon these groups.

Mental Hygiene and Education, by MANDEL SHERMAN. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1934, 295 pages.

There have been many attempts to translate the insights of psychiatry into usable knowledge for the layman interested in dealing with the adjustment problems of childhood and adolescence. This is one of the more successful. To the classroom teacher, as well as to the counselor, this book should give insight into the mechanism of the emotional life, the symptoms of which constitute the bulk of the problems with which they must deal. This volume is one of the Longmans Psychology Series.

Guiding Your Child Through the Formative Years, by WINIFRED DEKOK. New York: Emerson Books, Inc., 1935, 186 pages.

A discussion of development, from the point of view of mental hygiene, from birth to five years of age. Among the subjects treated are: weaning, excretion, learning to talk, imagination, fears and fancies, tantrums, sex education, play, freedom, originality and idiosyncrasy, and independence. Sane, common-sense talk and on a level which parents, without Ph.D.'s in psychology, can get.

Marriage and Sexual Harmony, by OLIVER M. BUTTERFIELD. New York: Emerson Books, Inc., 1934, 40 pages.

An excellent factual pamphlet, clear, concise, and accurate, to put in the hands of the young man or young woman desiring information concerning the sexual relationship in marriage.

Soviet Russia Fights Crime, by LENKA VON KOERBER, translated from the German by MARY FOWLER. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1935, 240 pages.

In the United States the individual approach to the delinquent and social programs for the prevention of delinquency have never been satisfactorily integrated. The reader may lay this volume down feeling that the U.S.S.R. has not completely reconciled these approaches. But its attempt is significant reading for all students of delinquency.

Five Hundred Delinquent Women, by SHELDON AND ELEANOR T. GLUECK. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1934, 539 pages.

A companion study to the authors' *Five Hundred Criminal Careers*, this volume analyzes the social problem presented by the delinquent woman, and the adequacy of the social machinery we have set up to deal with the problem. Like the Gluecks's previous studies, it will undoubtedly arouse a storm of controversy among those interested in criminology and penology. Indispensable reading for college and university courses in either field. The methodological note at the end of the volume will be of special interest to others doing research in the field of delinquency.

The Social Worker in the Prevention of Delinquency, by MARGARETTA WILLIAMSON. New York: Columbia University Press, 1935, 236 pages.

This is the fourth volume in the job-analysis series of the American Association of Social Workers. It pictures the social worker in agencies engaged in the prevention of delinquency: the probation officer, parole officer, police woman, social worker in protective agencies, the Big Brother and Big Sister. Of particular interest to attendance officers and visiting teachers whose work brings them into contact with these agencies.

Juvenile Probation, by BELLE BOONE BEARD. New York: American Book Company, 1934, 219 pages.

An analysis of the case records of five hundred children studied at the Judge Baker Guidance Clinic and placed on probation in the Juvenile Court of Boston. Perhaps the most significant evaluation of a concrete

probation program to date. If schoolmen think it remote from their problems, let them recall Warden Lawes's recent statement that the failures of our schools are filling our reformatories and penitentiaries, and reflect upon Dr. Beard's finding that two fifths of these delinquents present educational problems which can be solved only with the coöperation of school officials. One of the American Sociology Series.

The Delinquent Boy and the Correctional School, by NORMAN FENTON. Claremont, California: Claremont Colleges Guidance Center, 1935, 182 pages.

Norman Fenton, director of the California Bureau of Juvenile Research, tells in this book the story of the work of Whittier School in the treatment of delinquency. Whittier School affords one of the outstanding examples in America of individualized school treatment of the delinquent. No one interested in the young delinquent—especially, perhaps, among public-school men—can afford to let this report go unread.

Social Sciences as School Subjects, by ROLLA M. TRYON. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1935, 541 pages.

The title could correctly be "A Statistical Study of the Evolution of History with the Inclusion of Civics, Economics, Political Economics, and Sociology." This is no book for the teacher interested in the social sciences, as its title would lead one to think. It is, rather, a factual, statistical outline, scholarly done, of the growth of history into the inclusive field of social sciences. The first seventy-one pages concern themselves with the effort of the national educational organizations to increase the interest of schools and educators in the possibilities of history as a disciplinary, educational, and cultural subject. The next 466 pages portray step by step the various changes in policy in the teaching of history so as to include the "new" interests, such as civics, political economy, economics, sociology, and psychology.

Propaganda and Promotional Activities, by HAROLD D. LASSWELL, RALPH D. CASEY, and BRUCE L. SMITH. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1935, xvii+ 450 pages.

The first twenty-seven pages give a general introduction to the study, summarizing the practice of propaganda. All of the remaining is

made up of a well-classified annotated bibliography of foreign and American contributions. It is without doubt the most comprehensive bibliography in this field in print.

The New America; The New World, by H. G. WELLS. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1935, 78 pages.

A very interesting statement regarding the New Deal. Although the author criticizes the generalizations of other analysts of the New Deal, his own recommendation is equally general. He approves the present policy in general, recognizes the limitation of presidential authority, and advocates an English-speaking union to achieve the "New World."

International Organizations in Which the U. S. Participates, by LAURENCE F. SCHMECKEBIER. Washington: Brookings Institution, 1935, x+ 370 pages.

This is a comprehensive yet very readable analysis of the part played by the United States in a variety of international organizations from the Boundary Commission between the United States and Mexico to the International Labor Organization. It is a factual analysis and well documented rather than of a propagandist character.

BOOKS RECEIVED

American College and University, by CHARLES FRANKLIN THWING. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Asiatics, The, by FREDERICK PROKOSCH. New York: Harper and Brothers.

Essential Traits of Mental Life, by TRUMAN L. KELLEY, Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Glands and Efficient Behavior, by FLORENCE MATEER. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company.

Individualizing Education, by J. E. WALTERS. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Land of the Free, by HERBERT AGAR. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Maxwell, Dr. William H., The First Superintendent of Schools of the City of New York, by SAMUEL P. ABELOW. Brooklyn, New York: Scheba Publishing Company.

Organizations for Youth, by E. R. PENDRY AND HUGH HARTSHORNE. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Personality Maladjustments and Mental Hygiene, by J. E. WALLACE WALLIN. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.

Psychological Foundations of Education, by J. STANLEY GRAY. New York: American Book Company.

Sanity First: The Art of Sensible Living, by JOSEPH JASTROW. New York: Greenburg, Publisher.

Single Woman and Her Emotional Problems, by LAURA HUTTON. Baltimore: William Wood and Company.

Sociological Theories of William Torrey Harris, by THOMAS HENRY CLARE. St. Louis: Washington University.

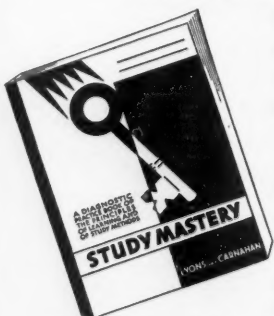
Symbols of Government, by THURMAN W. ARNOLD. New Haven: Yale University Press.

Tests and Measurements in Industrial Education, by LOUIS V. NEWKIRK AND HARRY A. GREENE. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Theory and Practice of Student Counseling, by HUGH M. BELL. Stanford University: Stanford University Press.

Wayward Youth, by AUGUST AICHORN. New York: Viking Press.

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